SARS-CoV-2 Omicron neutralization by therapeutic antibodies, convalescent

1

sera, and post-mRNA vaccine booster 2 3 4 5 One Sentence Summary: Third dose of Pfizer/BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine significantly 6 boosts neutralizing antibodies to the Omicron variant compared to a second dose, while 7 neutralization of Omicron by convalescent sera, two-dose vaccine-elicited sera, or therapeutic 8 antibodies is variable and often low. 9 10 **Authors:** 11 Sabrina Lusvarghi¹, Simon D. Pollett^{2,3}, Sabari Nath Neerukonda¹, Wei Wang¹, Richard 12 Wang¹, Russell Vassell¹, Nusrat J. Epsi^{2,3}, Anthony C Fries⁴, Brian K Agan^{2,3}, David A. Lindholm^{5,6}, 13 Christopher J. Colombo^{6,7}, Rupal Mody⁸, Evan C. Ewers⁹, Tahaniyat Lalani^{2,3,10}, Anuradha 14 Ganesan^{2,3,11}, Emilie Goguet^{3,12}, Monique Hollis-Perry¹⁴, Si'Ana A. Coggins^{3,12}, Mark P. Simons², Leah 15 C. Katzelnick¹³, Gregory Wang^{14,15}, David R. Tribble², Lisa Bentley¹⁶, Ann E. Eakin¹⁷, Christopher C. 16 Broder¹², Karl J. Erlandson¹⁸, Eric D. Laing¹², Timothy H. Burgess², Edward Mitre¹², Carol D. Weiss^{1†} 17 18 **Affiliations:** 19 ¹ Division of Viral Products, Office of Vaccine Research and Review, Center for Biologics 20 Evaluation and Research, U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Silver Spring, Maryland, USA 21 ² Infectious Diseases Clinical Research Program, Department of Preventive Medicine and Biostatistics, 22 Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD, USA ³ Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine, Inc., Bethesda, MD, USA 23

- ⁴U.S. Air Force School of Aerospace Medicine, Wright-Patterson, OH, USA
- ⁵ Brooke Army Medical Center, Joint Base San Antonio-Fort Sam Houston, TX, USA
- ⁶ Department of Medicine, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD, USA
- ⁷ Madigan Army Medical Center, Joint Base Lewis McChord, WA, USA
- 28 William Beaumont Army Medical Center, El Paso, TX, USA
- 29 ⁹ Fort Belvoir Community Hospital, Fort Belvoir, VA, USA
- 30 ¹⁰ Naval Medical Center Portsmouth, Portsmouth, VA, USA
- 31 ¹¹Walter Reed National Military Medical Center, Bethesda, MD, USA
- 32 ¹² Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences,
- 33 Bethesda, MD, USA
- 34 ¹³Viral Epidemiology and Immunity Unit, Laboratory of Infectious Diseases, National Institute of Allergy
- and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA
- ¹⁴ Clinical Trials Center, Infectious Diseases Directorate, Naval Medical Research Center, Silver Spring,
- 37 MD, USA
- 38 ¹⁵ General Dynamics Information Technology, Falls Church, VA, USA
- 39 ¹⁶ Office of the Assistance Secretary for Preparedness and Response, U.S. Department of Human
- Health and Services, Washington D.C., USA.
- 41 ¹⁷ Division of Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious
- Disease, National Institutes of Health, Rockville, Maryland, USA.
- 43 ¹⁸ Influenza and Emerging Infectious Diseases Division, Biomedical Advanced Research and
- Development Authority, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Washington, D.C.,
- 45 USA.

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

Abstract: The rapid spread of the highly contagious Omicron variant of SARS-CoV-2 along with its high number of mutations in the spike gene has raised alarm about the effectiveness of current medical countermeasures. To address this concern, we measured neutralizing antibodies against Omicron in three important settings: (1) post-vaccination sera after two and three immunizations with the Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccine, (2) convalescent sera from unvaccinated individuals infected by different variants, and (3) clinical-stage therapeutic antibodies. Using a pseudovirus neutralization assay, we found that titers against Omicron were low or undetectable after two immunizations and in most convalescent sera. A booster vaccination significantly increased titers against Omicron to levels comparable to those seen against the ancestral (D614G) variant after two immunizations. Neither age nor sex were associated with differences in post-vaccination antibody responses. Only three of 24 therapeutic antibodies tested retained their full potency against Omicron and high-level resistance was seen against fifteen. These findings underscore the potential benefit of booster mRNA vaccines for protection against Omicron and the need for additional therapeutic antibodies that are more robust to highly mutated variants. **Main Text: INTRODUCTION** In November 2021 a new SARS-CoV-2 variant, named Omicron (Pango lineage B.1.1.529), was identified as a variant of concern (VOC). Its rapid spread in Africa and unusually high number of mutations, especially in the spike gene, has triggered intense international efforts to track the variant's spread and evaluate its effects on the potency of therapeutics and vaccines. The predominant strain of Omicron has mutations in the spike gene encoding 15 amino acid

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

changes in the receptor binding domain (RBD) of the spike surface protein (G339D, S371L, S373P, S375F, K417N, N440K, G446S, S477N, T478K, E484A, Q493R, G496S, Q498R, N501Y, and Y505H). The RBD mediates virus attachment to the ACE2 receptor on target cells and is the principal target of neutralizing antibodies that contribute to protection against SARS-CoV-2. Many of these RBD changes have been previously reported to reduce the effectiveness of several therapeutic neutralizing antibodies (reviewed in Corti et al(1)). A recent study reports that the full complement of RBD substitutions in the Omicron spike compromises the potency of over 85% of 247 anti-RBD monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) tested(2). Preliminary reports indicate substantial immune evasion to two-dose vaccine-elicited sera(3-7), booster-elicited sera(8-16), genotype-varying convalescent sera(3, 5, 6), and several mAbs(2, 6). However, study populations and methods vary widely among the studies to date, and many lack critical details about host characteristics. Moreover, studies have not examined how host demography predicts these neutralizing humoral responses, and examination of how infection by a broader diversity of SARS-CoV-2 Delta and non-Delta genotypes is important for further insights into how genetic diversity may correlate with cross-neutralizing antibody responses. Here we used a pseudovirus neutralization assay(16) to measure antibody neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron in three important contexts: (1) antibodies induced after two or three doses of the Pfizer-BioNTech Covid-19 (Pfizer/BNT162b2 mRNA) vaccine, (2) antibodies induced from infection by different SARS-CoV-2 variants and (3) therapeutic antibodies under emergency use authorization (EUA) or in later stages of clinical development. We compared the magnitude of neutralization escape by Omicron to D614G (referred to as wild type, WT) and Delta SARS-CoV-2 variants to help inform public health decisions and offer further data toward correlate of protection research.

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

RESULTS

Three immunizations of the Pfizer/BNT162b2 mRNA COVID-19 vaccine significantly boosts neutralizing antibodies to the Omicron variant compared to two-vaccinations. The emergence of the Omicron variant coincided with recommendations for booster immunizations, particularly for at risk populations. We studied the neutralization titers of 39 generally healthy, adult healthcare workers participating in the Prospective Assessment of SARS-CoV-2 Seroconversion study (PASS study, Table 1)(17) who received the full primary series (1st and 2nd) and booster (3rd) immunizations with the Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccine. We chose to study sera at peak responses after the full primary series vaccination rather than after 6 months because 6-months titers are often very low(10, 18). Neutralization activity against Omicron above the threshold of our assay (1:40 dilution) was only observed in 12.8% (5/39) of serum samples obtained at a mean of 30 ± 11 days after the 2^{nd} Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccination (Figure 1A). After the 2nd vaccination neutralization titers against Omicron (geometric mean titer, GMT 22) were 25.5-fold lower than neutralization titers against WT (GMT 562). By contrast, neuralization titers against Delta (GMT 292) were 1.9-fold lower than WT. Neutralization titers from the same individuals collected 43 ± 17 days after the 3^{rd} Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccination were 8.9-fold greater against WT (GMT 5029) compared to titers after the 2nd vaccination. The titers against Omicron after the 3rd vaccination (GMT 700) showed 31.8-fold increase compared to titers after the 2nd vaccination, whereas titers against Delta after the 3rd vaccination (GMT 1673) were only 5.7-fold higher than the titers after the 2nd vaccination. Importantly, all individuals had measurable neutralizing titers against Omicron after

the 3rd vaccination, highlighting the potential for increased protection by a booster vaccine.

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

We also evaluated how sex or age of the individual might affect the titers in sera after vaccination. We did not observe a trend according to sex or age after the 2nd or 3rd vaccination (Figure 1B and 1C, respectively). A total of 17/39 individuals had a positive anti-N (SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein) seroconversion during regular scheduled blood sampling between the 2nd and the 3rd immunization(17). No symptoms of COVID-19 were reported by the subjects, possibly indicative of silent infection or exposure to SARS-CoV-2 or other coronaviruses. We did not find any trends when comparing differences in neutralizing antibody titers between individuals who had anti-N seroconversion and those who did not (Figure 1D). To assess the breadth of neutralization responses against Omicron induced by boosting, we compared the change in titers against Omicron or Delta relative to WT after the 2nd and 3rd vaccination. To account for variability in the antibody titers from one individual to another, we calculated the ratio between the neutralization titers after the 3rd and the 2nd vaccination for each variant and plotted this ratio for Omicron and Delta against WT (Figure 1E). We observed that the ratios of NT₅₀ titer from the 3rd to the 2nd vaccination for Omicron relative to the corresponding ratios for WT were higher than the ratios for Delta relative to WT, suggesting that the 3rd vaccination broadened responses to the distantly-related variant. Neutralization of Omicron by convalescent sera from individuals infected by different variants shows lower neutralization titers compared to the infecting variant. To investigate the potency of infection-induced neutralizing antibodies against Omicron, we compared neutralization titers against WT, Delta, and Omicron in convalescent sera obtained at a mean of 30.2 ± 9.3 days post-symptom onset from unvaccinated individuals infected with WT, Alpha, Beta, or Delta variants who were enrolled in the Epidemiology, Immunology, and Clinical Characteristics of Emerging Infectious Diseases with Pandemic Potential (EPICC)

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

study(19). Genotypes of the infecting variants were sequenced for all cases (Table 2 and Supplementary Table). These convalescent sera were complemented by a Beta-convalescent serum from another protocol. Figure 2 shows that the Delta variant was modestly more resistant to neutralization than WT by sera from most individuals infected with WT, Alpha, or Beta viruses (1.1 to 1.9-fold), while neutralization titers were much more reduced against Omicron (2.3 to 70.1- fold). A total of 2/10 and 0/20 individuals infected with WT (B.1 and B.1.2) variants, respectively, had a response above the threshold against Omicron, whereas 2/5 and 2/2 individuals infected with Alpha (B.1.1.7) and Beta (B.1.351) variants, respectively, were above threshold. Convalescent sera from individuals infected with Delta (B.1.617 and AY.14/.25/.44/.47/.62/.74/.119) variants generally had higher neutralization titers against Delta (2.8 to 13.5-fold) compared to WT, indicating more focused antibody responses to epitopes in the Delta spike. Convalescent sera from these Delta-infected individuals showed 22.1 to 74.4-fold lower neutralization titers against Omicron compared to Delta. However, a total of 6/7 individuals infected with the B.1.617.2 variant and 9/10 individuals infected with an AY variant had titers above threshold against Omicron. Boosting reduces apparent antigenic differences between WT and Omicron variants. We applied antigenic cartography to explore how the convalescent and post-vaccination sera distinguish the different spike antigens. Antigenic maps were made separately using neutralizing antibody titers from individuals infected with the different variants or from individuals after the 2nd or 3rd vaccination (Figure 3). Convalescent sera were more heterogeneous compared to the post-vaccination, with each convalescent serum clustering closer to the infecting variant, as expected. The 3rd post-vaccination sera were more tightly clustered around WT compared to the

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

2nd post-vaccination sera. The antigenic distances between Omicron and WT were large for all three sera sets, but the antigenic distance between Omicron and WT were smaller after the 3rd vaccination (7.2-fold drop) compared to either convalescent or the 2nd vaccination sera (49.4-fold drop and 39.4-fold drop, respectively), in agreement with the titer changes in Figure 1A. Small distance changes between WT and Delta were observed for all three sera sets (2.0 to 3.6-fold difference). The potency of most therapeutic antibody products is compromised against Omicron. As part of the US government COVID-19 response effort to speed development of therapeutics for COVID-19, we assessed the neutralization of Omicron by 24 therapeutic antibody products currently under EUA or in late stages of clinical development. This panel includes 15 single therapeutic neutralizing antibody products (nAbs), six combination nAbs (cnAbs) and three polyclonal antibody preparations (pAbs). The manufacturers provided these clinical products for side-by-side comparisons of potency against variants but required blind coding of these antibody products for publications. Previously, we reported that several single substitutions in the spike protein of other variants conferred resistance to some of these products(20), but a similar assessment has not been performed on the Omicron spike. Figure 4A shows the neutralization curves for each product against WT and Omicron. To quantify the relative drop in nAb potency we calculated ratios between the 50% inhibitory concentration of Omicron to WT (Figure 4B). These ratios do not account for the absolute potencies of the nAbs but do allow for a uniform comparison of the changes in potency against Omicron relative to WT for all the antibody products. We note that the majority of successful clinical trials were performed when predominant strains had a ratio of near 1 compared to WT. However, absolute potency using IC₅₀ ng/ml as a measure has not been established as a correlate

of protection. We defined ratios between of 5 to 50 as a benchmark for partial or moderate resistance and ratios of > 50 as a benchmark for more complete resistance relative to WT. While the clinical relevance of the IC₅₀ changes has not been determined for any *in vitro* assay, these cutoffs were chosen because the therapeutic levels of antibody therapeutics may be high enough to overcome low levels of resistance. By the fold-change measure, only three of 15 nAbs retained near full potency against Omicron compared to WT, and only one retained partial potency. Two cnAbs retained partial potency, while the remaining four cnAbs showed complete loss of neutralization potency. All three pAbs showed reduced neutralization potency (ratios 13-17) against Omicron, in agreement with the data from convalescent and vaccinated individuals. These findings raise concerns that many of the available therapeutic antibody products may not be effective against Omicron.

DISCUSSION

Neutralizing antibodies are widely accepted as an important component of protection against SARS-CoV-2 infection and disease (COVID-19), but efforts to assess antibody titers that correlate with protection are complicated by many factors. These include potential redundancy and synergism of different components of the humoral, cellular, and innate immune system, and differences in variant fitness and host genetics, age, and prior immunity. The risk of infection can also be confounded by human behavior and local public health measures, while measurements of antibody titers can vary with different laboratory methods. Therefore, differences in study populations and laboratory methods are important considerations for assessing the impact of immune evasion by Omicron on medical countermeasures.

Here, using the same lentiviral pseudovirus neutralization platform we measured the change

in potency of 24 clinical-stage therapeutic antibodies against Omicron compared to WT (D614G)

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

and compared neutralizing antibodies in sera from two well-characterized cohorts of subjects in prospective clinical studies. Our findings show that most vaccinated individuals have low or undetectable titers against Omicron after the second Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccination, similar to findings reported by others (3-7). However, the third vaccination significantly increased neutralizing titers to levels significantly higher than those elicited by the second vaccination, in agreement with other preliminary studies (8-14). It is notable that the post-2nd vaccination and post-3rd vaccination sampling times were similar, indicating that this boost does not simply reflect time since last vaccine. We found no association between sex or age with these neutralizing immune responses, although it is important to note that the study samples were from generally healthy adults, and that the post-vaccine-dose sampling time was overall short (43 \pm 17 days). It has been shown that infection followed by vaccination results in neutralizing antibody titers comparable or higher to titers after two vaccinations (3, 10, 14, 21). The PASS study included anti-N antibody testing on all blood samples for detection of silent infections. The neutralizing antibody titers among the 17 asymptomatic individuals who seroconverted for N antibodies between the 2nd and 3rd immunization were not higher than those who did not seroconvert. Other studies have shown high antibody titers in convalescent individuals after the 1st or 2nd vaccination(10, 11). We did not see an increase after the 3rd vaccination in individuals who seroconverted for N-antibodies. This may be due to reduced antigen load from incident asymptomatic infection or having reached a maximum response after vaccination. The antigenic cartography analysis suggests that the Omicron variant appears to be antigenically distant from WT and Delta, but this distance seems to decrease after the 3rd vaccination. The apparent broadening of responses to Omicron may be due to boosting of titers to cross-reactive epitopes or improved antibody affinity to shared epitopes, or both. For the

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

convalescent sera, high titers generally correlated with the highest cross-neutralization to Omicron. Continued studies of the breadth against multiple variants and duration of responses after booster vaccinations are urgently needed. In both vaccination and convalescent individuals, our studies suggest that booster vaccinations, even with the original ancestral vaccine antigen, could be beneficial in protecting against Omicron, in agreement with the rapidly accumulating data from many sources(3, 5, 6). Lastly, nine of the fifteen clinical-grade nAbs under EUA or in late stages of clinical development had no measurable IC₅₀ against Omicron compared to WT. Also, while most nAbs and cnAbs lost measurable potency, all polyclonal antibodies retained measurable, though reduced with IC₅₀. Careful selection of therapeutic antibodies is needed according to variant prevalence. As Omicron continues to acquire additional mutations the products that remain effective could be jeopardized, underscoring the risk associated with this variant and its derivatives. In summary, our findings indicate that booster doses of mRNA COVID-19 vaccines may afford an increase in protection against Omicron by inducing higher levels of neutralizing antibodies compared to two vaccine doses or the levels of neutralizing antibodies induced by SARS-CoV-2 infection from different variants. The strengths of this study include representation of a broad diversity of genotypes, including within-Delta diversity, comparable sampling times between convalescent and vaccinated subjects, the use of cartography methods, and the availability of subject demographics to interpret how host characteristics may influence Omicron humoral immunity. The limitations of our study include the relatively small numbers of study subjects, restricted timing of sera collection, and the use of a pseudovirus platform as a surrogate to authentic SARS-CoV-2 viruses. Ultimately neutralization titers need to be tied to clinical

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

outcomes. The rapid and unpredictable evolution of SARS-CoV-2 requires continued development and assessments of medical countermeasures. MATERIALS AND METHODS Vaccinated participants Details of the PASS study protocol, including the inclusion/exclusion criteria, have been published(17). Full details are in the Supplemental Material. Briefly, generally healthy healthcare workers without a history of SARS-CoV-2 infection at screening were enrolled. The study began in August 2020 and involved monthly research clinic visits to obtain serum for longitudinal SARS-CoV-2 antibody testing. The subset of participants included in this study received three doses of Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccine; none had a PCR-confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection during follow-up. Participants' serially-collected serum samples were screened for immunoglobulin G (IgG) reactivity with SARS-CoV-2 spike protein and nucleocapsid protein (N) using a multiplex microsphere-based immunoassay, as described(22). Unvaccinated infections - study population and general study design The EPICC study is a cohort study of U.S. Military Health System (MHS) beneficiaries that includes those with a history of SARS-CoV-2 infection, as described previously (19). Full details are in Supplemental Material. Enrollment occurred at six Military Treatment Facilities (MTFs). Demographic, comorbidity, COVID illness characteristics, and vaccination status were obtained from the clinical case report form and/or the MHS Data Repository. Biospecimen collection included serial serum samples and upper respiratory specimen swabs. Diagnosis of SARS-CoV-2 infection and genotyping of infections used for convalescent sera

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

SARS-CoV-2 infection was determined by positive clinical laboratory PCR test performed at the enrolling clinical site, or a follow-up upper respiratory swab collected as part of the EPICC study. The specific clinical PCR assay employed at the MTF varied. The follow-up PCR assay (for EPICC specimens) was the SARS-CoV-2 (2019-nCoV) CDC qPCR Probe Assay research use only kits (IDT, Coralville, IA)(23); details are in the Supplemental Material. Whole viral genome sequencing was performed on extracted SARS-CoV-2 RNA from PCR-positive specimens; details are in the Supplemental Material. The Pango classification tool (https://cov-<u>lineages.org/</u>) was used for genotype classification (version 3.1.17). **Ethics** The PASS (IDCRP-126) and EPICC (IDCRP-085) studies were approved by the Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) in compliance with all applicable Federal regulations governing the protection of human participants. All PASS and EPICC study participants provided informed consent. The convalescent Beta sera, obtained from a traveler who had moderate-severe Covid-19 in the Republic of South Africa during the peak of the Beta (B.1.351) wave in January 2021, was obtained with informed consent and covered under the US Food and Drug Administration IRB approved expedited protocol # 2021-CBER-045. SARS-Cov-2 pseudovirus production and neutralization assays Lentiviral pseudoviruses were generated and used in neutralization assays, as previously described(24). The Omicron spike expression plasmid was generously provided by Nicole Doria-Rose (Vaccine Research Center, National Institutes of Health). Neutralization assays were

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

performed on 293T-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells stably expressing ACE2 and transmembrane serine protease 2 (BEI # NR-55293). Twenty-four clinical-stage therapeutic antibody products were provided by pharmaceutical companies to support the US government COVID-19 response efforts. The antibody identities are blinded for publications per an agreement with the companies. Neutralization curves were normalized to virus only controls and fitted using nonlinear regression curve (GraphPad Prism, La Jolla, CA). The antibody concentration or sera dilution corresponding to 50% neutralization was defined as NT₅₀ for sera or IC₅₀ for antibody products. Data reported are averages from at least two independent experiments, each with intraassay duplicates. **Antigenic cartography** ACMACS antigenic cartography software (https://acmacs-web.antigenic-441cartography.org/) was used to create a geometric interpretation of neutralization titers against the WT, Delta, and Omicron variants. Each square in the map indicates one antigenic unit, corresponding to two-fold dilution of the antibody in the neutralization assay. Antigenic distance is measured in any direction of the map. **Supplementary Materials** Supplementary materials and methods Table S1: SARS-CoV-2 genotypes for the infecting variants

References and Notes

- 320 1. D. Corti, L. A. Purcell, G. Snell, D. Veesler, Tackling COVID-19 with neutralizing monoclonal antibodies.
- 321 *Cell* **184**, 3086-3108 (2021).
- 322 2. Y. Cao, J. Wang, F. Jian, T. Xiao, W. Song, A. Yisimayi, W. Huang, Q. Li, P. Wang, R. An, J. Wang, Y.
- Wang, X. Niu, S. Yang, H. Liang, H. Sun, T. Li, Y. Yu, Q. Cui, S. Liu, X. Yang, S. Du, Z. Zhang, X. Hao,
- F. Shao, R. Jin, X. Wang, J. Xiao, Y. Wang, X. S. Xie, B.1.1.529 escapes the majority of SARS-CoV-2
- neutralizing antibodies of diverse epitopes. bioRxiv, 2021.2012.2007.470392 (2021).
- 326 3. A. Rössler, L. Riepler, D. Bante, D. v. Laer, J. Kimpel, SARS-CoV-2 B.1.1.529 variant (Omicron) evades
- neutralization by sera from vaccinated and convalescent individuals. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2008.21267491
- 328 (2021).
- 329 4. L. Lu, B. W.-Y. Mok, L. Chen, J. M.-C. Chan, O. T.-Y. Tsang, B. H.-S. Lam, V. W.-M. Chuang, A. W.-H.
- 330 Chu, W.-M. Chan, J. D. Ip, B. P.-C. Chan, R. Zhang, C. C.-Y. Yip, V. C.-C. Cheng, K.-H. Chan, I. F.-N.
- Hung, K.-Y. Yuen, H. Chen, K. K.-W. To, Neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant by sera from
- BNT162b2 or Coronavac vaccine recipients. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2013.21267668 (2021).
- N. Ikemura, A. Hoshino, Y. Higuchi, S. Taminishi, T. Inaba, S. Matoba, SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant
- escapes neutralization by vaccinated and convalescent sera and therapeutic monoclonal antibodies.
- 335 *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2013.21267761 (2021).
- E. Cameroni, C. Saliba, J. E. Bowen, L. E. Rosen, K. Culap, D. Pinto, A. De Marco, S. K. Zepeda, J. di
- Iulio, F. Zatta, H. Kaiser, J. Noack, N. Farhat, N. Czudnochowski, C. Havenar-Daughton, K. R. Sprouse, J.
- R. Dillen, A. E. Powell, A. Chen, C. Maher, L. Yin, D. Sun, L. Soriaga, C. Gustafsson, H. Chu, N. M.
- Franko, J. Logue, N. T. Iqbal, I. Mazzitelli, J. Geffner, R. Grifantini, A. Gori, A. Riva, O. Giannini, A.
- Ceschi, P. Ferrari, A. Franzetti-Pellanda, C. Garzoni, C. Hebner, L. Purcell, L. Piccoli, M. S. Pizzuto, A. C.
- Walls, A. Telenti, H. W. Virgin, A. Lanzavecchia, D. Veesler, G. Snell, D. Corti, Broadly neutralizing
- antibodies overcome SARS-CoV-2 Omicron antigenic shift. bioRxiv, 2021.2012.2012.472269 (2021).
- 343 7. S. Cele, L. Jackson, K. Khan, D. Khoury, T. Moyo-Gwete, H. Tegally, C. Scheepers, D. Amoako, F.
- Karim, M. Bernstein, G. Lustig, D. Archary, M. Smith, Y. Ganga, Z. Jule, K. Reedoy, J. E. San, S.-H. Hwa,
- J. Giandhari, J. M. Blackburn, B. I. Gosnell, S. A. Karim, W. Hanekom, NGS-SA, C.-K. Team, A. von
- Gottberg, J. Bhiman, R. J. Lessells, M.-Y. S. Moosa, M. Davenport, T. de Oliveira, P. L. Moore, A. Sigal,

- 347 SARS-CoV-2 Omicron has extensive but incomplete escape of Pfizer BNT162b2 elicited neutralization
- and requires ACE2 for infection. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2008.21267417 (2021).
- 349 8. C. I. Kaku, E. R. Champney, J. Normark, C. E. Johnson, C. Ahlm, M. Sakharkar, M. E. Ackerman, M. N.
- E. Forsell, L. M. Walker, Broad anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibody immunity induced by heterologous
- 351 ChAdOx1/mRNA-1273 prime-boost vaccination. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2013.21267598 (2021).
- W. F. Garcia-Beltran, K. J. St Denis, A. Hoelzemer, E. C. Lam, A. D. Nitido, M. L. Sheehan, C. Berrios, O.
- Ofoman, C. C. Chang, B. M. Hauser, J. Feldman, D. J. Gregory, M. C. Poznansky, A. G. Schmidt, A. J.
- Iafrate, V. Naranbhai, A. B. Balazs, mRNA-based COVID-19 vaccine boosters induce neutralizing
- 355 immunity against SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2014.21267755 (2021).
- 356 10. H. Gruell, K. Vanshylla, P. Tober-Lau, D. Hillus, P. Schommers, C. Lehmann, F. Kurth, L. E. Sander, F.
- Klein, mRNA booster immunization elicits potent neutralizing serum activity against the SARS-CoV-2
- 358 Omicron variant. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2014.21267769 (2021).
- 359 11. F. Schmidt, F. Muecksch, Y. Weisblum, J. D. Silva, E. Bednarski, A. Cho, Z. Wang, C. Gaebler, M.
- Caskey, M. C. Nussenzweig, T. Hatziioannou, P. D. Bieniasz, Plasma neutralization properties of the
- 361 SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant. medRxiv, 2021.2012.2012.21267646 (2021).
- 362 12. K. Basile, R. J. Rockett, K. McPhie, M. Fennell, J. Johnson-Mackinnon, J. E. Agius, W. Fong, H. Rahman,
- D. Ko, L. Donavan, L. Hueston, C. Lam, A. Arnott, S. C.-A. Chen, S. Maddocks, M. V. O'Sullivan, D. E.
- Dwyer, V. Sintchenko, J. Kok, Improved neutralization of the SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant after Pfizer-
- 365 BioNTech BNT162b2 COVID-19 vaccine boosting. bioRxiv, 2021.2012.2012.472252 (2021).
- 366 13. I. Nemet, L. Kliker, Y. Lustig, N. S. Zuckerman, O. Erster, C. Cohen, Y. Kreiss, S. Alroy-Preis, G. Regev-
- 367 Yochay, E. Mendelson, M. Mandelboim, Third BNT162b2 vaccination neutralization of SARS-CoV-2
- 368 Omicron infection. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2013.21267670 (2021).
- 369 14. A. Wilhelm, M. Widera, K. Grikscheit, T. Toptan, B. Schenk, C. Pallas, M. Metzler, N. Kohmer, S. Hoehl,
- 370 F. A. Helfritz, T. Wolf, U. Goetsch, S. Ciesek, Reduced Neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron Variant
- 371 by Vaccine Sera and monoclonal antibodies. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2007.21267432 (2021).
- 372 15. N. Doria-Rose, X. Shen, S. D. Schmidt, S. O'Dell, C. McDanal, W. Feng, J. Tong, A. Eaton, M. Maglinao,
- H. Tang, R. L. Atmar, K. E. Lyke, L. Wang, y. Zhang, M. R. Gaudinski, W. P. Black, I. Gordon, M. Guech,
- J. E. Ledgerwood, J. N. Misasi, A. Widge, P. C. Roberts, J. Beigel, B. Korber, R. Pajon, J. R. Mascola, D.

375 C. Montefiori, Booster of mRNA-1273 Vaccine Reduces SARS-CoV-2 Omicron Escape from Neutralizing 376 Antibodies. medRxiv, 2021.2012.2015.21267805 (2021). 377 16. J. M. Carreño, H. Alshammary, J. Tcheou, G. Singh, A. Raskin, H. Kawabata, L. Sominsky, J. Clark, D. C. 378 Adelsberg, D. Bielak, A. S. Gonzalez-Reiche, P. P. S. Group, K. Srivastava, E. M. Sordillo, G. Bajic, H. 379 van Bakel, V. Simon, F. Krammer, Activity of convalescent and vaccine serum against a B.1.1.529 variant 380 SARS-CoV-2 isolate. medRxiv, 2021.2012.2020.21268134 (2021). 381 17. B. M. Jackson-Thompson, E. Goguet, E. D. Laing, C. H. Olsen, S. Pollett, K. M. Hollis-Perry, S. E. 382 Maiolatesi, L. Illinik, K. F. Ramsey, A. E. Reyes, Y. Alcorta, M. A. Wong, J. Davies, O. Ortega, E. 383 Parmelee, A. R. Lindrose, M. Moser, E. Graydon, A. G. Letizia, C. A. Duplessis, A. Ganesan, K. P. Pratt, 384 A. M. Malloy, D. W. Scott, S. K. Anderson, A. L. Snow, C. L. Dalgard, J. H. Powers, 3rd, D. Tribble, T. H. 385 Burgess, C. C. Broder, E. Mitre, Prospective Assessment of SARS-CoV-2 Seroconversion (PASS) study: 386 an observational cohort study of SARS-CoV-2 infection and vaccination in healthcare workers. BMC Infect 387 Dis 21, 544 (2021). 388 18. E. D. Laing, C. D. Weiss, E. C. Samuels, S. A. A. Coggins, W. Wang, R. Wang, R. Vassell, S. L. Sterling, 389 M. A. Tso, T. Conner, E. Goguet, M. Moser, B. M. Jackson-Thompson, L. Illinik, J. Davies, O. Ortega, E. 390 Parmelee, M. Hollis-Perry, S. E. Maiolatesi, G. Wang, K. F. Ramsey, A. E. Reyes, Y. Alcorta, M. A. 391 Wong, A. R. Lindrose, C. A. Duplessis, D. R. Tribble, A. M. W. Malloy, T. H. Burgess, S. D. Pollett, C. H. 392 Olsen, C. C. Broder, E. Mitre, Durability of antibody responses and frequency of clinical and subclinical 393 SARS-CoV-2 infection six months after BNT162b2 COVID-19 vaccination in healthcare workers. 394 medRxiv, 2021.2010.2016.21265087 (2021). 395 19. S. A. Richard, S. D. Pollett, C. A. Lanteri, E. V. Millar, A. C. Fries, R. C. Maves, G. C. Utz, T. Lalani, A. 396 Smith, R. M. Mody, A. Ganesan, R. E. Colombo, C. J. Colombo, D. A. Lindholm, C. Madar, S. Chi, N. 397 Huprikar, D. T. Larson, S. E. Bazan, C. English, E. Parmelee, K. Mende, E. D. Laing, C. C. Broder, P. W. 398 Blair, J. G. Chenoweth, M. P. Simons, D. R. Tribble, B. K. Agan, T. H. Burgess, E. C.-C. S. Group, 399 COVID-19 Outcomes Among US Military Health System Beneficiaries Include Complications Across 400 Multiple Organ Systems and Substantial Functional Impairment. Open Forum Infect Dis 8, ofab556 (2021).

401 20. S. Lusvarghi, W. Wang, R. Herrup, S. N. Neerukonda, R. Vassell, L. Bentley, A. E. Eakin, K. J. Erlandson, 402 C. D. Weiss, Key substitutions in the spike protein of SARS-CoV-2 variants can predict resistance to 403 monoclonal antibodies, but other substitutions can modify the effects. J Virol, JVI0111021 (2021). 404 21. M. Schubert, F. Bertoglio, S. Steinke, P. A. Heine, M. A. Ynga-Durand, F. Zuo, L. Du, J. Korn, M. 405 Milošević, E. V. Wenzel, H. Maass, F. Krstanović, S. Polten, M. Pribanić-Matešić, I. Brizić, A. Piralla, F. 406 Baldanti, L. Hammarström, S. Dübel, A. Šustić, H. Marcotte, M. Strengert, A. Protić, Q. Pan 407 Hammarström, L. Čičin-Šain, M. Hust, Human serum from SARS-CoV-2 vaccinated and COVID-19 408 patients shows reduced binding to the RBD of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant in comparison to the original 409 Wuhan strain and the Beta and Delta variants. medRxiv, 2021.2012.2010.21267523 (2021). 410 22. E. D. Laing, S. L. Sterling, S. A. Richard, N. J. Epsi, S. Coggins, E. C. Samuels, S. Phogat, L. Yan, N. 411 Moreno, C. L. Coles, M. Drew, J. Mehalko, S. Merritt, K. Mende, V. Munster, E. de Wit, K. K. Chung, E. 412 V. Millar, D. R. Tribble, M. P. Simons, S. D. Pollett, D. Esposito, C. Lanteri, G. T. Clifton, E. Mitre, T. H. 413 Burgess, C. C. Broder, Antigen-based multiplex strategies to discriminate SARS-CoV-2 natural and 414 vaccine induced immunity from seasonal human coronavirus humoral responses, medRxiv. (2021). 415 23. S. Jangra, C. Ye, R. Rathnasinghe, D. Stadlbauer, g. Personalized Virology Initiative study, F. Krammer, 416 V. Simon, L. Martinez-Sobrido, A. Garcia-Sastre, M. Schotsaert, SARS-CoV-2 spike E484K mutation 417 reduces antibody neutralisation. Lancet Microbe, (2021). 418 24. S. N. Neerukonda, R. Vassell, S. Lusvarghi, R. Wang, F. Echegaray, L. Bentley, A. E. Eakin, K. J. 419 Erlandson, L. C. Katzelnick, C. D. Weiss, W. Wang, SARS-COV-2 Delta variant displays moderate 420 resistance to neutralizing antibodies and spike protein properties of higher soluble ACE2 sensitivity, 421 enhanced cleavage and fusogenic activity. bioRxiv, (2021). 422 423 **Acknowledgments:** 424 The authors wish to also acknowledge all who have contributed to the EPICC (IDCRP-085) 425 COVID-19 study.

427 Brooke Army Medical Center, Fort Sam Houston, TX: Col J. Cowden; LTC M. Darling; S. 428 DeLeon; Maj D. Lindholm; LTC A. Markelz; K. Mende; S. Merritt; T. Merritt; LTC N. Turner; 429 CPT T. Wellington 430 431 Carl R. Darnall Army Medical Center, Fort Hood, TX: LTC S. Bazan; P.K Love 432 433 Fort Belvoir Community Hospital, Fort Belvoir, VA: N. Dimascio-Johnson; MAJ E. Ewers; 434 LCDR K. Gallagher; LCDR D. Larson; A. Rutt 435 436 Henry M. Jackson Foundation, Inc., Bethesda, MD: P. Blair; J. Chenoweth; D. Clark 437 438 Madigan Army Medical Center, Joint Base Lewis McChord, WA: S. Chambers; LTC C. 439 Colombo; R. Colombo; CAPT C. Conlon; CAPT K. Everson; COL P. Faestel; COL T. Ferguson; 440 MAJ L. Gordon; LTC S. Grogan; CAPT S. Lis; COL C. Mount; LTC D. Musfeldt; CPT D. 441 Odineal; LTC M. Perreault; W. Robb-McGrath; MAJ R. Sainato; C. Schofield; COL C. Skinner; 442 M. Stein; MAJ M. Switzer; MAJ M. Timlin; MAJ S. Wood 443 444 Naval Medical Center Portsmouth, Portsmouth, VA: S. Banks; R. Carpenter; L. Kim; CAPT K. 445 Kronmann; T. Lalani; LCDR T. Lee; LCDR A. Smith; R. Smith; R. Tant; T. Warkentien 446 447 Naval Medical Center San Diego, San Diego, CA: CDR C. Berjohn; S. Cammarata; N. Kirkland; 448 D. Libraty; CAPT (Ret) R. Maves; CAPT (Ret) G. Utz

450 Tripler Army Medical Center, Honolulu, HI: S. Chi; LTC R. Flanagan; MAJ M. Jones; C. Lucas; 451 LTC (Ret) C. Madar; K. Miyasato; C. Uyehara 452 453 Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD: B. Agan; L. Andronescu; 454 A. Austin; C. Broder; CAPT T. Burgess; C. Byrne; COL K Chung; J. Davies; C. English; N. 455 Epsi; C. Fox; M. Fritschlanski; M. Grother; A. Hadley; COL P. Hickey; E. Laing; LTC C. 456 Lanteri; LTC J. Livezey; A. Malloy; R. Mohammed; C. Morales; P. Nwachukwu; C. Olsen; E. 457 Parmelee; S. Pollett; S. Richard; J. Rozman; J. Rusiecki; E. Samuels; M. Sanchez; A. Scher; 458 CDR M. Simons; A. Snow; K. Telu; D. Tribble; L. Ulomi 459 460 United States Air Force School of Medicine, Dayton, OH: SSgt T. Chao; R. Chapleau; M. 461 Christian; A. Fries; C. Harrington; S. Huntsberger; K. Lanter; E. Macias; J. Meyer; S. Purves; K. 462 Reynolds; J. Rodriguez; C. Starr 463 464 Womack Army Medical Center, Fort Bragg, NC: B. Barton; LTC D. Hostler; LTC J. Hostler; 465 MAJ K. Lago; C. Maldonado; J. Mehrer 466 467 United States Army Medical Research Institute of Infectious Diseases, Frederick, MD: MAJ J. 468 Kugelman 469 470 William Beaumont Army Medical Center, El Paso, TX: MAJ T. Hunter; J. Mejia; R. Mody; R. 471 Resendez; P. Sandoval; M. Wayman

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

Walter Reed National Military Medical Center, Bethesda, MD: I. Barahona; A. Baya; A. Ganesan; MAJ N. Huprikar; B. Johnson Walter Reed Army Institute of Research, Silver Spring, MD: S. Peel We also thank Douglas Pratt and Hector Izurieta (US Food and Drug Administration) for critical review of the manuscript. **Funding Statement:** This work was supported by awards from the Defense Health Program (HU00012020067, HU00012120094, HU00012120104) and the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Disease (HU00011920111). The PASS and EPICC protocols were executed by the Infectious Disease Clinical Research Program (IDCRP), a Department of Defense (DoD) program executed by the Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences (USUHS) through a cooperative agreement by the Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine, Inc. (HJF). This project has also been funded in part by the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases at the National Institutes of Health (NIAID/NIH), under an interagency agreement with USUHS (Y1-AI-5072), and by the Intramural Research Program of NIAID. Additional support was provided by institutional research funds from the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and NIAID/NIH through an interagency agreement (AAI21013-001-00000) with Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research, FDA, as part of the US Government COVID-19 response efforts.

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

Author contributions: Conceptualization: SL, SDP, RV, EG, CCB, LB, KJE, EDL, THB, EM, CDW Methodology: SL, SDP, SNN, WW, RV, ACF, EG, SAC, CCB, LB, KJE, EDL, LCK, EM, **CDW** Investigation: SL, SDP, SNN, WW, RW, RV, NJE, ACF, DAL, CJC, RM, AG, EG, SAC, GW, LB, KJE, ECE, TL, CDW Visualization: SL, SDP, WW, RV, LCK, CDW Funding acquisition: SDP, AEE, DRT, THB, EM, CDW Project administration: SDP, RV, BKA, MH-P, MPS, DRT, AEE, KJE, EDL, THB, EM, CDW Supervision: SDP, CCB, EDL, EM, THB, CDW Writing – original draft: SL, SDP, CDW Writing – review & editing: SL, SDP, SNN, WW, RW, RV, NJE, ACF, BKA, DAL, CJC, RM, ECE, TL, AG, EG, MH-P, SAC, MPS, LCK, GW, CCB, DRT, LB, AEE, KJE, EDL, THB, EM, **CDW Competing interests:** Potential conflicts of interest. S. D. P., T. H. B, and D.R.T. report that the Uniformed Services University (USU) Infectious Diseases Clinical Research Program (IDCRP), a US Department of Defense institution, and the Henry M. Jackson Foundation (HJF) were funded under a Cooperative Research and Development Agreement to conduct an unrelated phase III COVID-19 monoclonal antibody immunoprophylaxis trial sponsored by AstraZeneca. The HJF, in support of the USU IDCRP, was funded by the Department of Defense Joint Program Executive Office for Chemical, Biological, Radiological, and Nuclear Defense to augment the conduct of an

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

unrelated phase III vaccine trial sponsored by AstraZeneca. Both of these trials were part of the US Government COVID-19 response. Disclaimer: E. Laing, T. Burgess, D. Tribble, A Fries, C. Broder, E. Mitre, M. Hollis-Perry, S. Lusvarghi, S. Pollett, SN. Neerukonda, W. Wang, R. Wang, R. Vassell, LC. Katzelnick, L Bentley, AE. Eakin, KJ. Erlandson and CD. Weiss are service members or employees of the U.S. Government. This work was prepared as part of their official duties. Title 17 U.S.C. §105 provides that 'Copyright protection under this title is not available for any work of the United States Government.' Title 17 U.S.C. §101 defines a U.S. Government work as a work prepared by a military service member or employee of the U.S. Government as part of that person's official duties. The contents of this publication are the sole responsibility of the author (s) and do not necessarily reflect the views, opinions, or policies of Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences (USUHS); the Department of Defense (DoD); the Departments of the Army, Navy, or Air Force; the Defense Health Agency, Brooke Army Medical Center; Walter Reed National Military Medical Center; Naval Medical Center San Diego; Madigan Army Medical Center; United States Air Force School of Aerospace Medicine; Fort Belvoir Community Hospital; the Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine Inc; the National Institutes of Health; the Office of the Assistance Secretary for Preparedness and Response, US Department of Health and Human Services (HHS); the Biomedical Advanced Research and Development Authority, HHS; or the US Food and Drug Administration. Mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations does not imply endorsement by the U.S.

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

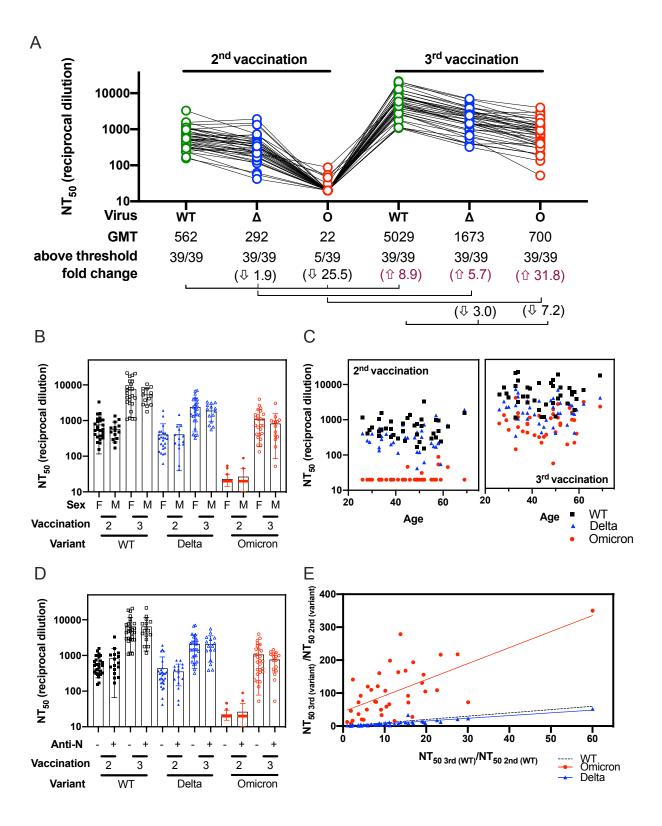
555

556

557

Government. The investigators have adhered to the policies for protection of human subjects as prescribed in 45 CFR 46. **Group authors EPICC and PASS (MEDLINE indexed):** Brooke Army Medical Center, Fort Sam Houston, TX: Katrin Mende Clinical Trials Center, Infectious Diseases Directorate, Naval Medical Research Center, Silver Spring, MD, USA: Christopher Duplessis, Kathleen F. Ramsey, Anatalio E. Reyes, Yolanda Alcorta, Mimi A. Wong, Santina Maiolatesi, Keishla Morales Padilla Fort Belvoir Community Hospital, Fort Belvoir, VA: Derek Larson Madigan Army Medical Center, Joint Base Lewis McChord, WA: Rhonda E. Colombo Naval Medical Center Portsmouth, Portsmouth, VA: Alfred Smith Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD: Stephanie Richard, Julia Rozman, Alyssa R. Lindrose, Matthew Moser, Belinda Jackson-Thompson, Margaret Sanchez-Edwards, Luca Illinik, Julian Davies, Orlando Ortega, Edward Parmelee United States Army Medical Research Institute of Infectious Diseases, Frederick, MD: MAJ J. Kugelman

Walter Reed National Military Medical Center, Bethesda, MD: Nikhil Huprikar



561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

Fig. 1. Sensitivity of the Omicron variant to neutralization by Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccinee sera. (A) Neutralization assays were performed using lentiviral pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 WT (B.1 lineage, D614G), Delta (Δ, B.1.617.2 lineage, T19R, G142D, E156-, F157-, R158G, L452R, T478K, D614G, P681R and D950N) and Omicron (O, B.1.1.529 lineage, A67V, del69-70, T95I, del142-144, Y145D, del211, L212I, ins214EPE, G339D, S371L, S373P, S375F, K417N, N440K, G446S, S477N, T478K, E484A, O493R, G496S, O498R, N501Y, Y505H, T547K, D614G, H655Y, N679K, P681H, N764K, D796Y, N856K, O954H, N969K and L981F) with sera from 39 healthcare workers after immunization with two and three doses of Pfizer/BNT162b2 vaccine. Sera was obtained at a mean of 30 ± 11 days after immunization with two doses and at a mean of 43 ± 17 days after booster vaccination. Each serum was run in duplicate in two independent experiments against each pseudovirus to determine the 50% neutralization titer (NT₅₀). The geometric means titers (GMT), the number of NT₅₀ above threshold (1:40) and the fold change are indicated. Titers below 1:40 were set at 20 to calculate GMTs. Arrows indicate increase or decrease relative to WT. Connecting lines indicate serum from the same individual. The demographic information for this sera cohort is provided in Table 1. (B) NT₅₀ by sex after 2nd or 3rd vaccination. (C) NT₅₀ by age after 2nd and 3rd vaccination. (D) 2nd or 3rd vaccination NT₅₀ according to anti-N (nucleocapsid protein) seroconversion between 2nd and 3rd vaccination. (E) The ratios between the neutralization titers after the 3rd and the 2nd immunization for Omicron and Delta were plotted against the corresponding ratios for WT. For panels B-E, black squares correspond to WT, blue triangles correspond to Delta and red circles correspond to Omicron.

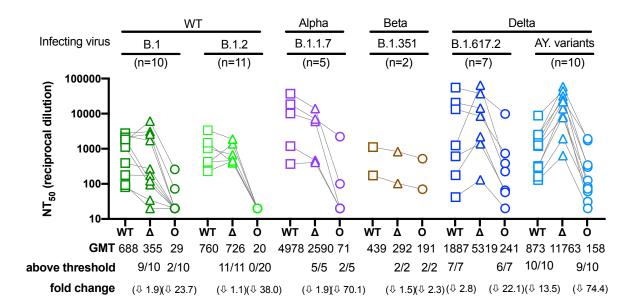


Fig. 2. Sensitivity of the Omicron variant to neutralization by convalescent sera

Neutralization assays were performed using convalescent sera from persons infected with genotyped variants from B.1, B.1.2, B.1.1.7, B.1.351, B.1.617.2, AY.14, AY.25, AY.44, AY.47, AY.62, AY.74 or AY.119 lineages (Table 2 and Supplementary Table). Both B.1 and B.1.2 have no mutations in the receptor binding domain and were therefore considered WT, whereas some of the AY mutants have additional mutations in the RBD relative to B.1.617.2. Each serum was run in duplicate against WT, Delta, and Omicron to determine the NT50. The geometric means (GMT), the number of NT50 above threshold (1:40) and the fold change are indicated. Titers that did not inhibit at the lowest dilution tested (1:40) were assigned a titer of 20 for GMT calculations. Arrows indicate decrease relative to the infecting variant. Connecting lines indicate serum from the same individual. Data shown represent two independent experiments each with an intra-assay duplicate. Squares correspond to WT, triangles correspond to Delta, and circles correspond to Omicron.

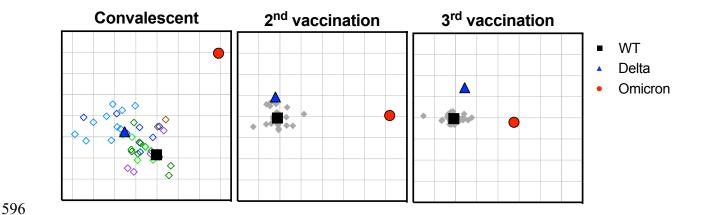


Fig. 3. Antigenic cartography of convalescent and vaccinee sera against WT, Delta and Omicron. Antigenic maps were separately generated from convalescent (left panel), 2nd vaccination (middle panel) or 3rd vaccination (right panel) sera. Convalescent sera are shown in diamonds as follows: B.1 (dark green), B.1.2 (light green), B.1.1.7 (purple), B.1.351 (brown), AY variants (light blue), and B.1.617.2 (dark blue). Gray diamonds correspond to post-vaccination sera. Each grid square corresponds to 2-fold dilution in the neutralization assay. Black squares correspond to WT variant. Blue triangles correspond to Delta variant. Red circle corresponds to Omicron variant.

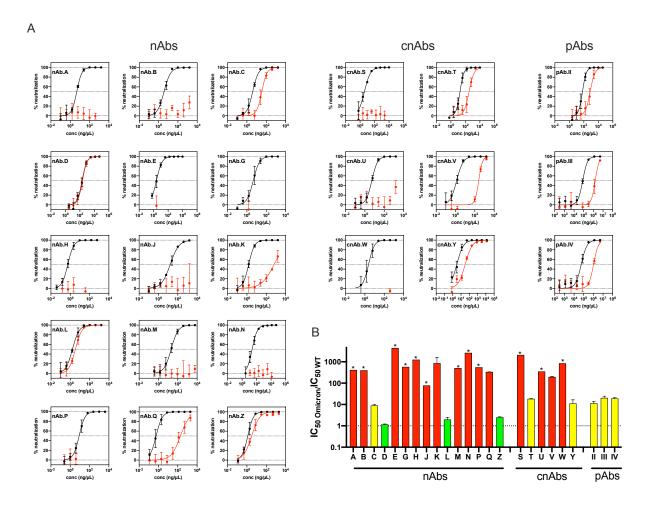


Fig. 4. Neutralization of Omicron by therapeutic antibodies. (A) Neutralization curves for each one of the 24 therapeutic antibody products against WT (black) and Omicron (red). (B) Bar graph showing the ratio between the IC₅₀ of Omicron and WT for all the antibody products. The sensitivity of the Omicron variant against 15 monoclonal antibodies (nAbs), 6 combination nAbs products (cnAbs), and 3 polyclonal antibodies (pAbs). Red indicates IC₅₀ resistance ratios >50, yellow indicates moderate resistance with IC₅₀ ratios between 5-50, and green indicates sensitivity comparable to WT with IC₅₀ ratios <5. Antibodies for which complete neutralization was not achieved at the highest concentration tested are denoted by *. Data shown represent two independent experiments each with an intra-assay duplicate.

Table 1. Demographic data for participants receiving Pfizer/BNT162b2 initial vaccine

series and booster

616

	N (%)
Sex	
Female	25 (64.1)
Male	14 (35.9)
Race	
White	26 (66.6%)
Asian	8 (20.5%)
Black	4 (10.3%)
Multiracial	1 (2.6%)
Occupation	
Nurse	11 (28.2%)
Physician	11 (28.2%)
Physical/Occupational/Recreational Therapist	9 (23.1%)
Medical Technician	3 (7.7%)
Lab Personnel	3 (7.7%)
Social Worker	1 (2.6%)
Psychologist	1 (2.6%)
Anti-N seroconversion after vaccination and before	
boost	
Positive	17 (43.6%)
Negative	22 (56.3%)

Age	
Mean age ± SD (range)	45 ± 11 (26 - 69)
Time between second vaccine and sample collection	
Mean days ± SD (range)	30 ± 11 (28 - 34)
Time between second vaccine and booster dose	
Mean days ± SD (range)	267 ± 14 (218-310)
Time between booster dose and sample collection	
Mean days +/- SD (range)	43 ± 17 (7 - 93)

Table 2: Characteristics of unvaccinated infections providing convalescent sera

	- 6
	N = 39
Gender	
Female	14 (35.9%)
Male	25 (64.1%)
Race	
White	29 (74.4%)
Asian	1 (2.6%)
Black	6 (15.4%)
Multiracial	3 (7.7%)
Age	
Mean age ± SD (range)	41.1 ± 20 (1.4 - 73.2)
Charlson comorbidity index	
0	20 (51.3%)
1-2	10 (25.6%)
3-4	5 (12.8%)
>5	4 (10.3%)
Time between infection symptom onset	and sample collection
Mean days ± SD (range)	30.2 ± 9.3 (14.0 - 51.0)
Severity of initial infection	
Outpatient	23 (59.0%)
II amitalina d	16 (41 00/)
Hospitalized	16 (41.0%)

AY.119	1 (2.6%)
AY.14	2 (5.1%)
AY.25	3 (7.7%)
AY.44	1 (2.6%)
AY.47	1 (2.6%)
AY.62	1 (2.6%)
AY.74	1 (2.6%)
B.1	10 (25.6%)
B.1.1.7	5 (12.8%)
B.1.2	6 (15.4%)
B.1.351	1 (2.6%)
B.1.617.2	7 (17.9%)

^{*}Genotypes assigned based on Pango 3.1.17 (2021-12-06). The genotype of the infecting variant was determined in all cases except for one, a traveler who had moderate-severe Covid-19 (outpatient) in the Republic of South Africa during the peak of the Beta (B.1.351) wave in January 2021 (FDA IRB Study # 2021-CBER-045).